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ABSTRACT

The background concerning educational programs and practices designed to promote the development, retention, and grade point averages of black college students is traced. The literature reveals historical events and legislative statutes that brought a system of educational inequality to blacks in America. A dual educational system has meant that blacks have required assistance to gain access to education and to compete with a white society that has been exposed to education for over 200 years prior to blacks. Tutoring has been a method to assist nontraditional students academically. Some colleges require students to sign contracts to use available academic support services as part of their college admission. Based on the literature, approaches are cited to improve the counseling relationship between counselor and black students. In addition to considering student development in general, problems encountered by black students on predominantly white campuses are addressed, along with reasons for attrition and methods to decrease attrition of black students on predominantly white campuses. Mandatory participation in counseling/advisement and tutoring for students in special assistance programs is advocated. Fifty-four references are listed. (SW)

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An Investigation of Non-Traditional Black Students at a Public Urban University, and the Effects of an University Mandatory Tutoring and Advisement Program on Student Development, Retention and Grade Point Averages: A Literary Review.

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Review of the Literature

The history of American Blacks in the United States in general and those seeking an education in particular, has been a history of non-traditional circumstances and activities. So non-traditional is the history of the African brought to America in 1619, that his "legal" education could not begin until after his freedom as a slave in 1864 (Franklin, 1967). Consequently, legislation concerning education, educational facilities, policies, and educational programs that attempt to enhance the development of the Black citizenry in the United States, seems to have been forced to develop in a non-traditional manner in an effort to solve problems concerning racial inequality in education. Therefore, the unique history of the Black American in the United States, has lead to his atypical behavior which requires special processes and procedures when he is exposed to institutions of American education. Consequently, in order for us to come to a specific rather than a general understanding as to why present programs and educational practices exist to enhance the development, retention, and grade point averages of Black students in higher education, literature from the following areas has been reviewed: historical, tutorial, counseling, student development, retention, and grade point averages.

Historial and Legislative Literature

The literature in this area highlights those historical events and legislative statutes that brought a system of educational inequality to Blacks in America. According to Rudolph (1962), when Harvard College was chartered by the legislative act of the Massachusetts General Court on October 28, 1636, the inhabitants of puritan Massachusetts indicated that they could not have done without Harvard (p. 5). Thus, the White youth of that time were piously educated in good letters and manners. As indicated by Rudolph (1962), "the two cardinal principles of English Puritanism which most profoundly affected the social development of New England and the United States were not religious tenets, but educational ideals: a learned clergy, and a lettered people" (p. 6). Central to these ideals was the development of Harvard College, the college which would train the schoolmasters, the divines, the rulers, the cultured ornaments of society--the men who would spell the difference between civilization and barbarism (Rudolph, 1962, p. 6). In order to carry out its educational ideals, the Harvard curriculum consisted of Latin, Greek, logic, Hebrew, rhetoric, natural philosophy, metaphysics, and moral philosophy (Rudolph, 1962, p. 26). As Rudolph (1962) indicates, "it has been estimated that as of 1775 perhaps one out of every thousand colonists had been to college at some time or other. The largest graduating class at Harvard before the American Revolution was the Class of 1771, with sixty-three graduates. In 1776 there were 3,000 living

graduates of the American colleges" (p. 22).

In contrast to this early history of education in America, we find the majority of the black population held in mental and physical bondage under colonial slave statutes. According to Brubacher and Rudy (1976) during the years of slavery, it was a statutory crime in many southern states even to teach a black to read or write (p. 74). Unlike any other immigrant groups in America and most minorities in other countries, the Black American was not allowed to bring his indigenous culture to America. Consequently, as stated by Brubacher and Rudy (1976):

> Centuries of slavery tended to suppress much of that which had, somehow, survived the ocean crossing. His civilization therefore tended to include whatever he could borrow from the dominant White man. During the long period of slavery the Black had been purposely kept either completely illiterate or, at best, only semiliterate. The northern missionaries faced the herculean task of educating more than three million such people in the whole range of knowledge and skills which had previously been denied to them. (p. 75)

As was customary, Blacks themselves had little or no role in establishing, financing, or administering institutions of education before the Civil War (Jencks and Riesman, 1968). Therefore, Christian missionaries eagerly took the financial and leadership role in the private

education of Blacks, but they remained ambivalent about the intellectual heights to which they should encourage Blacks to rise (Fleming, 1984, p. 5). Organizations such as the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, Quakers, the Society of Friends, the Associates of Dr. Bray and individual citizens like George Fox, took it upon themselves to attempt to raise the standard of living among both Blacks and Whites. These organizations and individuals attempted to influence slave masters to allow there slaves to be converted christains, by allowing them to learn how to read and write through the teaching of the Scriptures. However, despite these and other efforts, Dr. Lorenzo Greene, the authority on the Blacks in New England, asserts that "most of the Negroes in New England, as in other colonies, were still infidels" at the end of the Colonial period (Franklin, 1969, p. 109). Nevertheless, according to Brubacher and Rudy (1976) "there were a few experiments with Black education before the Emancipation Proclamation. In 1849, the Avery "College" for blacks opened in Allegheny City, Pennsylvania. In Washington, D.C. the Miner Academy for black girls opened in 1851. A year later, an institute for "colored youth" began to function in Philadelphia" (Brubacher and Rudy, 1976, p. 74). Nevertheless, according to Brubacher and Rudy (1976) et. al., these were not true colleges. As Fleming (1984) indicates:

> For the most part, these schools were colleges in name only, consisting of elementary and secondary school

departments. A small number of them developed advanced curricula and began granting bachelor of arts degrees after 1865. Liberal arts curricula were offered in these schools to help Blacks become fully participating citizens. (p. 5)

However, after the Civil War, laws mandating the disfranchisement of Blacks took effect, along with a policy to limit the growth of Black education to vocational training. Under these circumstances according to Brubacher and Rudy (1976), it should not be a surprise that the first Black college graduate in America did not receive his degree until 1826; the grand total of such graduates by 1860 was only twenty-eight (p. 74). Furthermore, according to Johnson (1938) by 1936 only 143 Blacks had earned B.A. degrees form northern White institutions. Even by 1964, only about 20 percent of baccalaureate degrees awarded to Blacks were earned at predominantly White colleges (Gurin and Epps, 1975).

From the literature selected in this area, the researcher has attempted to show the historical development of a dual educational system in America--one for Blacks and one for Whites. The results, was that Blacks required assistance of all types to gain access to education in order to compete with a White society who had the opportunity to be exposed to education for over 200 years prior to Blacks. Moreover, Blacks were not encouraged nor expected to have educational goals or ideals; little if any input into

curriculum development was inspired, nor were they expected to complete and receive degrees of any kind.

This brief historical analysis, should give us a rational for developing tutoring and advisement programs to assist students whose ancestral history might be the foundation for their present day situation in institutions of higher education.

In the next section, the researcher will provide some of the findings regarding legislative documents which outline the statutory processes in assisting Blacks to gain access to education in general and higher education in particular.

Review of Legislative Documents

The review of this material showed the struggle of Blacks to obtain equal opportunity in education through the help of federal and state statutes.

"There was a good deal of dissantisfaction in the second quarter of the nine-teenth century with the traditional liberal-arts college in America. President Wayland of Brown asserted in 1850 that the United States had 120 colleges, 47 law schools, 42 theological seminaries, and yet not a single institution "designed to furnish the agriculturist, the manufacturer, the mechanic, or the merchant with the education that will prepare him for the profession to which his life is to be devoted. As late as 1862, there were only six "higher" schools in the whole country purporting to deal with these utilitarian fields" (Brubacher and Rudy, 1976, p. 62). Therefore, in 1857

Justin Morrill introduced a bill in Congress calling for federal aid to construct and provide aid for agricultural and mechanical colleges. The Morrill Act was approved by Congress and signed by President Abraham Lincoln in 1862 (Brubacher and Rudy, 1976, p. 63). After President Lincoln signed the Emancipation Proclamation in 1864, "in addition to northern church groups, the United States Army and the Freedmen's Bureau were active in helping to get education for Blacks started after the Civil War" (Brubacher and Rudy, 1976, p. 75). The Freedmen's Bureau was actually the first federal agency to take a serious interest in the higher education of Blacks--finding the following Black colleges: Oliver O. Howard, Clinton B. Fisk and Meharry Medical College to name a few.

When the Fourteenth Amendment was adopted to the United States Constitution in 1868 (Morris, 1980, p. 714), the question became who has "inalienable rights" and "equal protection of the laws." With the passage of the second Morrill Act in 1890, and of subsequent legislation in the twentieth century, there was an increase in the amount of federal aid to land-grant colleges. This promoted Brubacker and Rudy (1976) to write that "these colleges stood pre-eminently for the principle, increasingly so important in the twentieth century, that every American citizen is entitled to receive some form of higher education. Together with the first state universities and municipal colleges, the early land-grant colleges represented the force of

democracy working as a mighty leaven in the world of American higher learning" (p. 64). However, Fleming (1984) felt that the federal mandate (the Morrill Act) gave states the option to either provide seperate educational facilities for Blacks or admit them to existing colleges (p. 5).

> In response, all Southern and border states chose to establish schools for Blacks. While separate, these public facilities never approached equity, having been hastily conceived and denied anywhere near equal resources. As a consequence, public black colleges have never provided the same number or caliber of educational services to the Black community as have their White counterparts. The majority of Black public colleges, then, evolved out of state desires to avoid admitting Blacks to existing White institutions, and the facilities provided were accordingly inferior. (Fleming, 1985, p. 5)

Six years later, the Plessy v. Ferguson decision in 1896 by the Supreme Court, gave federal judicial sanction to the concept of "separate but equal." Brubacher and Rudy (1976) reported the following:

> The result was the founding of a number of Black land-grant "colleges." Seventeen southern and southwestern states ultimately set up such institutions. As late as 1917, a report by the Phelps-Stokes Fund revealed that in all seventeen of the land-grant schools for Blacks there were only

> twelve students enrolled in courses that could be classified as college level. This situation was in essence an extension of the principle of segregated "separate-but-unequal" education, which had long existed in these states on the primary school level, to the field of higher education. (p. 76)

Furthermore, Fleming (1984) indicates that "the Plessy vs. Ferguson 1896 doctrine of separate but equal highlighted the new emphasis on industrial training for Blacks as opposed to liberal arts education. This new emphasis was justified by a campaign to instill belief in Black intellectual inferiority. The period from 1900-1954 was characterized by a continuing debate of vocational versus liberal arts education for Blacks--a debate personified in the characters of Booker T. Washington and W.E.B. DuBois, respectively" (p. 6). According to Brubacher and Rudy (1976):

> The NAACP began to have great success in winning decisions from the high court, which reversed Plessy v. Ferguson and established the constitutional rights of Blacks to attend publicly supported institutions of higher education in the South.
>
> The first of the important cases of this nature was Missouri ex real Gaines v. Canada in 1938. Here the court ruled that the state of Missouri was denying equal educational opportunity to a Black by giving him a scholarship to attend a law school in another state. The state, it held,

> must provide educaton for all its residents and this should be done within the state. Missouri and other southern states began now to establish separate professional schools for Blacks as part of their state university systems. (p. 77)

By 1950 other such cases were heard that reversed the Plessy v. Ferguson decision, Sweatt v. Painter, McLaurin v. Oklahoma State Regents and et al. The effect of these court decisions found most southern states quietly opening their universities to Blacks. "By 1952 only five states--South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama and Mississippi--still barred Black students from their publicly supported universities. Then in 1954, the Supreme Court ruled, in the epoch-making decision Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka that all racial segregation in public education was outlawed. Very soon thereafter the court made it clear that its decision applied to higher education as well as elementary and secondary schooling" (Brubacher and Rudy, 1976, P. 78). Desegregation of higher education in the states mentioned above and others was quickened by an act of Congress known as the Civil Rights Act of 1964. A federal court ruling based on this act (Adam v. Richardson, 1972) ordered the United States government to cut off all federal funds in aid of higher education from ten states where it was felt progress in the direction of desegregation was too slow and unsatisfactory (Brubacher and Rudy, 1976, p. 78). Brubacher and Rudy (1976) further states that:

> There were other ways in which the Civil Rights Act of 1964 produced a significant impact on American higher education. The act stated that any business firm, state or local government, college or university doing contract work or receiving grants from the federal government must not practice discrimination based on race, color, sex or national origin if it wished to continue to receive federal monies. The federal government sought to implement this legislation by demanding that colleges and universities institute "Affirmative Action" programs which would end all forms of racial discrimination in the hiring of staff, admission of students, granting of financial aid, and allocation of dormitory space. (p. 79)

The approval by Congress to pass the Higher Education Act of 1965, made way for federal funding programs in higher education designed to identify qualified students from low-income families, to prepare them for a program of postsecondary education, and to provide special services for such students who are pursuing programs of postsecondary education (Committee on Education and Labor [COEL], 1979, p. 40). Such programs, to name a few, include: "Talent Search" whose main emphasis is to encourage secondary-school or college dropouts of demonstrated aptitude to reenter educational programs, including postsecondary-school programs. "Upward Bound," that is designed to generate skills and motivate primarily high school students to enter

postsecondary education. "Special Services for Disadvantaged Students," whose students are enrolled or accepted for enrollment into institutions of higher education; who by reason of deprived educational, cultural, or economic background, or physical handicap, are in need of such services to assist them to initiate, continue, or resume their postsecondary education or by reason of limited English-speaking ability, are in need of bilingual educational teaching, guidance, and counseling in order to enable them to pursue a postsecondary education (COEL, 1979, p. 41).

Some state colleges and universities receive state appropriated funds for "special assistance programs." These programs were developed and designed to increase, retain, and graduate those students who are educationally and/or economically disadvantaged. According to the statistics from the State of Illinois Board of Higher Education (SIBHE, 1978), in Illinois there are 29 such programs in 13 state universities, assisting approximately 10,000 students. Accoring to Cross (1976):

> These "new students" or "non-traditional" students in higher education are primarily from minority ethnic groups, their parents have never attended college, and the expectation of college is new to the family. The new Students themselves have not been especially successful at their high school studies. Whereas traditional college

> students (upper third) have made A's and B's in high school, New Students have made mostly C's. Traditional students are attracted primarily to four-year colleges and universities, whereas New Students plan to enter public community colleges or vocational schools.
>
> Fundamentally, these New Students to higher education are swept into college by the rising educational aspirations of the citizenry. For the majority, the motivation for college does not arise from anticipation of interest in learning the things they will be learning in college but from the recognition that education is the way to a better job and a better life than that of their parents. (p. 15)

According to Grant and Snyder (1983), there are approximately 1,106,750 Black students enrolled in institutions of higher education. Accoring to some current estimates, about two thirds to three fourths of the Black students now in college are in predominantly White educational settings (Boyd, 1974; Gurin and Epps, 1975). As of 1967, there were estimated to be 133,000 Black students in White colleges and nearly 95,000 of them in colleges outside the South (Bowles and DeCosta, 1971). Gurin and Epps report that 278,000 students were in non-Black institutions in 1968—representing a 144 percent increase from the 114,000 enrolled in 1964. Nevertheless, although the majority of Black students in this country now attend White colleges, Blacks are still underrepresented, particularly in private and four year public institutions, since about one half of all Black college students are enrolled in two-year colleges (Fleming, 1981, p. 280). In terms of the numbers of degrees awarded, Fleming (1984) indicates that in "1947 nearly 90 percent of the college degrees held by Blacks were earned in Black colleges. By 1967, 80 percent of the B.A.'s were still earned in Black schools, and as recently as 1964, over one half of black college graduates were from Black institutions. Black colleges have given us, according

to one estimate, 75 percent of all Blacks holding Ph.D. degrees, 75 percent of all Black army officers, 80 percent of all Black federal judges, and 85 percent of all Black doctors" (p. 8). Presently, according to the National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education (NACBHE, 1980), Black colleges produce 40 percent of the Black graduates in the nation (p. 1). If we examine further the national statistics of Blacks receiving B.A. degrees from all institutions of higher education, Blacks received only 5.2 percent of all bachelor degrees awarded in 1974 (Brown and Stent, 1977, p. 59). Another national statistic by Grant and Snyder (1983) showed Blacks receiving 5.4 percent of all bachelor degrees awarded in 1980. In 1976, the National Center for Educational statistics (NCES) indicated that Blacks received 6.61 percent of all bachelor degrees awarded that year. A longitudinal survey by Astin (1982) showed Blacks in his sample who entered college in 1972, received 12 percent of the bachelor degrees awarded in 1976. Statistics from the Illinois State Board of Higher Education (ISBHE, 1978) reported that out of the 29 "special assistance programs" at 13 state universities, five programs reported that 7.8 percent of the Blacks who entered their programs in 1972 had completed B.A. degrees by 1978. In terms of advance degrees (M.A.'s and Ph.D's), Blacks have been awarded between 2 to 4 percent of these degrees from 1975 to present (Astin, 1982; Brown and Stent, 1977; Grant and Snyder, 1983; NACBHE, 1980). Consequently, if we know that Blacks are enrolled in predominantly White universities in greater numbers than ever before, but that Black universities are granting the majority of degrees, then Black students in particular who are attending White universities need further academic and social support (this is especially true for those who we have defined as non-traditional) in order that they can complete their degree program.

From the literature selected in this section, the investigator has attempted to show the use of legislative statutes that produced the Black colleges and that later provided access for Blacks to attend all colleges. Also examined was the use of government, religous denominations and private citizens, who also helped in trying to provide an equal education for the Black American.

With the majority of Blacks now enrolled in predominantly White educational institutions, this next section will provide some of the findings regarding the most widely used form of supplemental instruction to assist Blacks in general and especially those identified as non-traditional.

Tutorial Literature

As a particular method of supplemental instruction, authors indicate the many methods and practices to increase classroom performance by the use of tutorial instruction.

According to Fleming (1984), the response to the unprecedented rise in Black student ranks was , unfortunately, guided by a set of explict and implicit assumptions about Black students that now seem unworkable (p. 12). Gibbs (1975) found:

> that administrators and faculty members expected Black students to be assimilated into the university community without substantial alteration of academic structure or programs. They also expected Black students to compete academically with White students, dispite the fact that many were admitted with known deficiencies in their high school preparation. In addition, they expected Blacks to blend into the sociocultural life of the campus and to be grateful for having been given the opportunity to obtain an integrated education.

In the research conducted by McDaniel and McKee (1971), over 82 percent of their reported sample of predominantly White institutions had either adopted open admissions policies or made special adjustments

for Blacks in admission requirements. However, only 50 percent had also adoped academic support programs, and most had made no effort to update their curricula. Only 44 percent were engaged in active efforts to recruit minority faculty as a way of meeting the needs of Black students. Furthermore, as few as 8 percent of the colleges were found to be making efforts to provide residential patters that promoted good race relations, and only one fourth were providing financial programs for Blacks, despite the overwhelming economic barriers facing them. This is why Cross (1976) has written that traditional college programs are not prepared to handle the learning needs of these New Students to higher education (p. 11). However, when there is an attempt to assist non-traditional students academically, the method of supplemental instruction is often tutorial. Webb (1983) through his research has stated that:

> relatively little is known about how students learn and how to systematically select methods to promote learning. Generally, however, until there is a sounder understanding of the analysis of learning styles and the matching of learning strategies, many teachers will find themselves in the position of varying teaching methods in an attempt to provide learning opportunities concomitant with contrasting learning styles. (p. 117)

Webb's research findings offers us the following suggestions to maximize tutoring programs for non-traditional students. Webb (1983) indicates that certain general properties of a mixture of small tutorial groups (with no more than four students) and individual tutorials have been identified as being beneficial or good when you have : a) all members participating, b) students arguing among themselves and c) all students asking questions.

Cross (1976) would like for us to consider the educational merits in promoting the concept of "buddy tutoring."

> "If you tutor me in medieval history, I'll tutor you in auto repair." Many of those who work with peer-tutoring programs have observed that the tutors seem to learn as much as, if not more than, the tutees. Buddy tutoring, then, would have the double advantage of developing the tutor's sphere of excellence while developing the tutee's sphere of competence. (p. 166)

The research by Heath (1985) indicated that after experimenting with peer-run group reviews, study skill counseling via specialists in the external community and personal counseling with either a school psychologist or community agency, individual peer-tutoring had the best results in increasing students scores on midterm and final exams. Heath further found that when individual peer-tutoring is supplemented with every other week peer-run group reviews, students maintain a high level of academic achievement. According to the research presented, tutoring exists in some postsecondary institutions, but such programs depend on the student to take the initiative to become involved with the tutoring services. Anderson (1978), Turner (1980) and et al, indicate that students who need support services the most tend to request them least. As a result, some postsecondary institutions require that students must sign contracts as part of their acceptance of admissions into the university or support program, that they will use the available academic support services that are provided. This is one of the major reasons why we feel that a mandatory program of tutoring and advisement/counseling is necessary.

From the literature selected in this section, the researcher has attempted to inform both institutions of higher education and educational support programs that serve non-traditional students, that supplemental education should exist to assist students academically. Moverover, there must exist the proper match between student learning

styles and teaching methods.

This next section will provide some of the findings regarding the importants of counseling in assisting Black students in general and especially those who are in special assistance programs.

Literature on Counseling

The literature indicates some of the problems, solutions, and counseling techniques, that are used while providing counseling to Black students. Haettenschwiller (1971) points out that the unknown quality of college life provides the basis for many student problems. Therefore, the traditional counseling system in higher education, in order to serve the disadvantaged student, must develop a contemporary integrative approach to counseling. Furthermore, Minatoya and Sedlacek (1983) have recognized that the diagnosis and remediation of students' problems are not enough. Preventive and developmental interventions also are necessary. Thus, student affairs offices have expended much effort toward providing programs that will help students with their normal concerns (e.g., personal and career identity, academic development, financial aid). Commenting on Black students in special programs, Haettenschwiller (1971) states:

> And it is worthwhile noting that "disadvantaged" is the appropriate term since, whatever cultural advantage or "overlooked" positives' he may enjoy, they have little relevance to the demands of the academic environment. (p. 29)

Nevertheless, with 3 percent Black faculty and 7 percent Black administrators (NACBHE, 1980) serving the needs of Black students throughout the nation, this small number of available role models must be increased to influence Black students. The research by Ponterotto, Anderson, and Grieger (1986), found that Black students show a preference for Black counselors and will stay away from counseling centers because they do not expect White counselors

to readily understand their problems. Nevertheless, if a counseling center is available and staffed by Blacks--Ponterotto, Anderson and Grieger (1986) suggest that it must provide extended outreach to Black students, to make sure that all students are aware that such services exist (p. 57).

During the counseling sessions with Black students, Turner (1980) suggests that Black students should be given an understanding about the educational/university bureaucracy, followed by the next important stop, information about course selection. Due to the fact that many Black students are ill prepared when they come to a university, they frequently will sign up for inappropriate course levels and/or inappropriate conbinations of courses. Furthermore, when one considers that over a decade of research has not resulted in a better understanding of how to serve the counseling needs of Blacks (Smith, 1977), the view of an institutional needs assessment of Black students becomes even more important. The results of the study by Miller, Springer, Milford, and Williams (1986), reinforce the position taken by the National Vocational Guidance Association (NVGA, now the National Career Development Association) and the American Vocational Association (AVA) (NVGA/AVA, 1973); what is needed is greater awareness of the importance of career counseling for ethnic minorities. In addition, the Association of Counselor Educators and Supervisors (ACES) proposed (Hansen, 1978) that counselors should pay particular attention to the career developmental needs of minorities (e.g., Blacks, women, handicapped) and should possess the skills necessary to assist them in their development. Indeed, research suggests that career development difficulties tend to be more characteristic of Black students as a group than of White students (Herr and Cramer, 1984).

Beck (1972) outlines a number of procedural goals that counselors must set for themselves if they want to assist Black

youth in their drive for a more positive self-concept:

1. Rediscover the history of the Black-White relationship and its essentially human character.

2. Identify the overt and covert effects of past and present relationships on the behavior of all involved in the Black-White counseling situation.

3. Join hands with the oppressed.

4. Identify those committed to helping.

5. Act as a facilitator to effect the union of the committed and the oppressed.

The objective of this approach would be the creation of a developmental environment that would provide an optimal balance of challenge and support (Bradly and Stewart, 1982, p. 123).

From the findings on tutoring and counseling Black students, it must appear obvious as to why we are demanding that both these very important functions become mandatory in programs and universities that are serving non-traditional students. Of course, we feel that according to the research in these areas, programs and universities should take the initiative in making tutoring and counseling mandatory, in order to insure student development, retention, and obtaining successful grade point averages.

From the literature selected in this section, the researcher has attempted to provide research literature that contains information has to how to improve the counseling relationship between counselor and Black students. In addition, the counseling needs of Black students are also addressed.

The next section will provide some of the findings regarding literature on student development.

Literature on Student Development

The authors define and discuss student development in general and some of the solutions offered in solving problems encountered

by Black students on predominantly White campuses that hinder Black student development.

Creamer (1980) explains the difficulty in attempting to define the term "student development":

> Student development is a general name given to various attempts to foster the development of college students. All such attempts either implicitly and/or intuitively or explicitly and/or formally make assumptions about the nature of college student development. The writer has argued elsewhere (Rodgers & Widick, 1978) that student development will be better served if it is based upon formal developmental theories rather than intuitive, implicit assumptions about human development. (p. 10)

Drawing on Erikson's stages of identity and intimacy, Chickering (1978) has identified seven developmental tasks or "vectors" that influence the direction and ease of student development. These are as follows:

1. achieving competence through the development of intellectual and social abilities as well as physical and manual skills;
2. managing emotions by being aware of personal feelings and recognizing that they may provide information relevant to contemplated behavior or to decisions about future plans;
3. becoming autonomous through emotional independence (freedom from continual and pressing needs for reassurance and approval) and instrumental independence (the ability to carry on activities and cope with problems without seeking help from others, the ability to be mobile in relation to one's needs, the ability to accept interdependence);
4. establishing an identity through confidence in one's ability to maintain inner sameness and continuity (one must be sure of one's physical needs, characteristics, and personal appearance

and be sure of sexual identification and sex-appropriate roles and behavior);

5. freeing interpersonal relationships by being able to express greater trust, independence, and individuality in relationships and by being less anxious and defensive and more friendly, spontaneous, warm, and respectful;

6. clarifying purposes by formulating plans and priorities that integrate a vocational and leisure-time interests;

7. developing integrity by making one's values both more personal and more human.

Although programs for specially admitted students have existed for the last decade, many of these students still find their years at college to be a frustrating and sometimes unfulfilling experience (Bradley and Stewart, 1982, p. 114). With this in mind, Sanford has advocated a "student development approach" that seeks to apply Miller's human development concepts in post-secondary settings, so that everyone involved can master increasingly complex developmental tasks, achieve self-direction and become interdependent (Miller, 1976, p. 3). A key assumption underlying this approach is that human development is a continuous and cumulative process of physical, psychological, and social growth that can be divided into an orderly series of "life stages." Each stage is characterized by certain developmental tasks that require a person to alter his or her present behavior and also master new meaning. However, if an individual receives only ridicule and criticism from the environment, it is likely that that individual will have great difficulty establishing and maintaining a healthy self-concept (Goodman, 1972). At the college level, according to Bradley and Stewart (1982), this seems to be particularly true of specially admitted students, many of whom are Black. These students face a myriad of problems as they seek to develop healthy self-concepts.

Further complicating this unhappy state of affairs is the fact that, in the loosely structured environment typical of many of today's colleges, many of these students are reluctant to seek remedial help, perhaps because they may not even realize that they need improvement in basic academic skills (Hedegard, 1972). Consequently, it has become this researchers assumption, that by enforcing mandatory tutoring and couseling sessions, non-traditional students will not only be aware that those services exist, but they will not be able to avoid them.

To the extent that racial prejudice and the psychological sets associated with minority status affect development, important issues are raised concerning Black colege students. Gibbs (1973) has pointed out:

> that many of the problems experienced by Black students can be traced to the incongruity between expectations of university staff and students themselves. Perhaps because of their lack of experience with Black students, administrators and faculty members seemed to expect that Black students would be assimilated into the university community without modification of the curriculum, provision of support services for high-risk students, hiring of minority faculty or staff, or attention to the sociocultural issues of dormitory life, dating, and social relationships.

In the area of social adjustment, Black students on predominantly White campuses will find that social isolation will interfere with their social development, unless more Black students are admitted to the university (Fleming, 1981). Black students come to integrated college settings expecting to be accepted by both Blacks and Whites and to establish friendships, across as well as within racial lines. Nevertheless, according to Fleming (1981), prejudice obstructs Black student development and the odds are

stacked against a constructive resolution of one of the first and most critical college relationships. As a result, Black separatism, an indication of the failure that exists in the relationship between the Black student and White society, and as an adaptation to stress due to rejection, separatism becomes a form of self-protection. Furthermore, according to Fleming (1981), the development of Black students on predominantly White campuses can be further retarded by their preoccupation with social problems. The capacity to survive in an integrated setting may well require new coping mechanisms and personality changes for Black students. As a result, a great deal of Black students energies appear to be directed toward learning to assert themselves in the face of an unresponsive or hostile environment (Fleming, 1981, P. 287).

In the area of intellectual influences, research has showed that Black students on predominantly White campuses will find that performance in biracial settings will cause them to become less active in participating in problem-solving tasks, even when matched with White sujects for aptitude. Black students will have less influence on team decisions and make more errors in biracial work groups compared with individual performance (Fleming, 1981). Furthermore, Black subjects displayed a distinctly compliant orientation to Whites even when matched for intelligence, as indicate by less active communication, directing communications mainly to Whites, and ranking Whites higher on task performance despite no real differences in performance (Katz, Goldston, and Benjamin, 1958; Katz and Benjamin, 1960). Although the performance of seriously disadvantaged students was likely to be impaired in stressful White settings, particularly when the intellectual significance of the task was stressed, performance of Black students was actually enhanced in White settings when (1) a realtively relaxed atmosphere was created, (2) motor tasks (versus IQ tasks) were used, and

(3) subjects had a history of academic achievement (Katz and Greenbaum, 1963; Katz, Roberts, and Robinson, 1965; Katz, 1967).

If Black students on predominantly White campuses seek to enhace their student development through informal contacts with Black faculty and administrators outside the classroom, then the percentage of Black faculty and administrators must be increased (Gurin and Epps, 1975).

In terms of academic preparation, Green (1969) in an examination of the factors related to successful matriculation of Black students in White schools, reports evidence that SAT-type scores are equally good predictors of performance for Black and White students but that attitudinal and personality factors play a more crucial role in Black students' performance. Consequently, Green (1969) confirms this researchers' position, when he states that effective tutorial and counseling programs can address both the academic and psychosocial problems and thereby help high-risk students perform successfully.

To the surprise of many educators, Black students at predominantly White colleges have expressed considerable discontent with the content of the curriculum. Therefore, according to Fleming (1981), in order to augment Black student development, the need for courses that are relevant to minority students' concerns, such as, courses in Black literature, African civilization and languages and Black contributions to American culture et al, should be included in the curriculums at White colleges.

In this section student development has been defined and some developmental problems encountered by Black students have been identified. Furthermore, some solutions to these problems that inhibit Black student development at predominantly White colleges were offered.

The next section will provide some of the findings in regards to increasing retention among Black students at predominantly White universities.

Literature on Retention

After defining retention, the literature will focus on why Black students leave college campuses and what methods will decrease the attrition of Black students on predominantly White campuses and increase their retention.

After reading the literature in this area, there were several philosophical meanings given to the term "retention." However, for the purpose of this research, the definition by Turner (1980) defines retention conceptually as it refers to the students matriculation and completion of an academic program in a college or university. According to the definition, a student who has gained access to an institution and graduates after completing an academic program (any academic program) is said to have been retained or to have persisted (Turner, 1980, p. 206).

Cope (1978) has found:

> Colleges themselves know very little about why their students withdraw. When a college maintains any record at all, the reasons usually given by students or recorded by college personnel are "financial," "academic," "personal," or "unknown." The two largest categories are invariably "personal" and "unknown": personal because it is an easy catchall for everything from serious illness to pregnancy; unknown, because many students simply leave without talking with anyone at the college. The "financial" category provides a socially acceptable excuse covering everything from fear of pending academic failure to an actual financial crisis at home. "Academic" ranges from actual academic failure to the discovery that the college does not offer the student's preferred major. (p. 1)

The characteristics of students most clearly related to retention have to do with their families, themselves,

their educational experiences prior to entering college, and their attainment expectations. One of the best predictors of retention is the family's socioeconomic status, which in turn is related to city dwelling and to parents' levels of education, wealth, and expectations for their children's education. An even better measure of retention is the entering student's own ability as measured by standard scholastic aptitude tests. The firmest measure of probable retention, however, is the high school or other previous grade-point average. The students sex appears to be somewhat related to retention, with most early research reporting more men persisting to graduation. (p. 4)

It is thus expected that social interaction with the faculty is related to retention, especially when the interaction focuses upon discussions of intellectual or course related matters (Spady, 1971; and Pascarella and Terenzini, 1977).

If we know that about 40 percent of the traditional entering college freshmen in baccalaureate granting institutions never achieve a degree, and out of the non-traditional entering college freshmen over 80 percent will never achieve a degree, successful retention programs for minority and low-income students according to Anderson (1978) should consist of the following guiding principles:

1. Program goals must be endorsed and supported by institution officials, and programmatic activities must be consistent with these goals.

2. Retention begins with an ethically conducted recruitment program based upon documented characteristics of persisters.

3. To improve the flow of nontraditional students into colleges, alliances should be formed with feeder high schools and community colleges.

4. It is impossible to orient students to institutional

demands before they have direct experience with those demands.

5. It is important for participants to identify with the equal opportunity program and yet not feel stigmatized by it.

6. The best retention services directly address the areas of greatest student anxiety and frustration.

7. Retention programs take the initiative in promoting and providing services. (The term "initiative" can be made operational by the use of the term "mandatory." We find this term to be pro-active rather than inactive; thus, our tutoring and advising program should be impactful.)

8. In order to ensure program relevance, students should be treated as consumers.

9. Campus support for an equal opportunity program will result if the program accomplishes its objectives and demonstrates its value to the institution.

10. The lifeblood of equal opportunity programs is an effective staff.

11. Program management must provide a developmental perspective.

From the literature selected in this section, the investigator has attempted to define the term "retention" as it applies to this particular research. Also investigated was the reasons why non-traditional students leave college or stay in college. Furthermore, major themes and principles that strengthen special assistance programs were given to increase minority and low-income student retention.

This next section will provide some of the findings regarding grade point averages.

Literature on Grade Point Averages

The literature on grade point averages (GPA's), contain correlations that indicate vaiables which assist in increasing a non-traditional students GPA.

The research by Astin (1978) showed that grades are strongly related to increases in interpersonal self-esteem among women and substantially related to increased intellectual self-esteem among both sexes and among students of all ability levels. Students with good grades are, of course, much more likely to persist than students with poor grades, including students with low but passing grades. They are also more likely to aspire to higher degrees. Good grades in college substantially increase the student's chances of realizing career objectives in virtually every field. The long-term outcomes of grades are mediated by the effects of grades on educational attainment (students with better grades go farther in postsecondary education) and on the quality of the undergraduate and graduate institution attended (students with better grades go to more selective institutions (Astin, 1978, p. 252).

Furthermore, factors that can be used to predict college GPA's according to Astin (1982) are : a) a students' high school GPA (the most import factor); b) students who have good study habits at the time of college entry; c) parental income and d) attending a predominantly Black college.

In the case of our research sample, that consists of Black students who are attending a predominantly White university; who have low GPA's from predominantly Black high schools; with poor study habits when they entered college and parental income at the poverty level; hopefully, mandatory tutoring and advisement will assist in not only increasing student development scores, but retention and GPA's as well. The research by C.E. Lunneborg and P.W. Lunneborg (1986) suggests:

> that minority students academic performance is more variable—suggesting a conclusion that no simple remedy is available to ensure that minority students have the same academic success as their White colleagues. No statistical adjustment for the past, no matter how sophisticated, can eliminate the need

> for careful attention to the needs of these students. The results of this study, limited as it was, suggest that these needs are multiple and will require continuing multiple efforts. Academic remediation, financial aid, social support, and greater faculty awareness of the potential for unfair treatment all need of greater attention. (p. 84)

From the literature selected in this section, the researcher has attempted to identify those factors/variables that help predict college GPA's. In addition, the literature associates GPA's with careers and other variables which signify success or status.

Conclusion

Along with 29 state funded special assistance programs in 13 universities in Illinois, there are also federally funded governmental special programs for the disadvantaged—Talent Search, Upward Bound, Special Services, Educational Opportunity Centers, and College Assistance Migrant Program—all seek to facilitate and encourage access to and participation in higher education by providing special interventions to identify, counsel, tutor, and otherwise assist academically able but educationally or financially disadvantaged students to complete high school and persist in college. Although the legislation does not specifically identify minority students as the intended target population for these programs, their legislative history as well as the high level of minority participation attest to their importance in helping minority students to enter and persist in higher education (Gordon, 1975). Hopefully, this research can be used as a guide to further assist directors of such programs mentioned above; to help Black students develop, remain in college, and achieve scholastically. Nevertheless, Turner (1980) reminds all those involved in assisting minority students in higher education, that regardless of all the assistance from individuals, programs, and institutions, "minority students must begin to realize that if they are to reap the benefits of a higher education in the

1980s, they will have to become much more responsible and accountable for their own education. The burden of success ultimately rests on their shoulders" (p. 213).

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